

## ABSTRACT

LINDAUER, J. A comparison of preferred coaching leadership behaviors of college athletes in individual and team sports. MS in Exercise and Sport Science-Physical Education Teaching, August 2000, 47pp. (J. Steffen)

Preferences for specific coaching behaviors of male and female athletes in individual and team sports were measured by the Modification and Revision of the Leadership Scale for Sport. Ss (N = 167) were selected from individual (wrestling and men's and women's track and field) and team (men's basketball, baseball, and softball) sports at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. There were differences between individual and team sport athletes and between male and female athletes' preferences for specific coaching behaviors ( $p < .05$ ). Differences were found in Democratic Behavior (DB), Autocratic Behavior (AB), Positive Feedback (PF), and Social Support (SS) ( $p < .05$ ). No differences were found in Situational Considerations (SC) or Training and Instruction (TI). There were differences between sports teams' preferences for specific coaching behaviors ( $p < .05$ ). Post hoc comparisons of the 6 subscales tested showed there were significant differences between the preferences of specific sports teams in DB, AB, PF, SC, and SS ( $p < .05$ ). No differences were found in TI. It is recommended that coaches align their coaching style to meet the needs of their team. Coaches should consider dependence and gender as factors that influence satisfaction and performance of their athletes.

A COMPARISON OF PREFERRED COACHING LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS  
OF COLLEGE ATHLETES IN INDIVIDUAL AND TEAM SPORTS

A THESIS PRESENTED  
TO  
THE GRADUATE FACULTY  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-LA CROSSE

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT  
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
MASTER OF SCIENCE DEGREE

BY  
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AUGUST 2000

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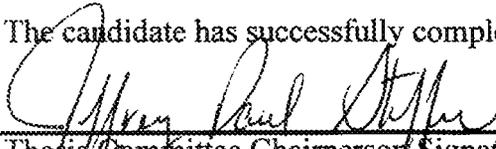
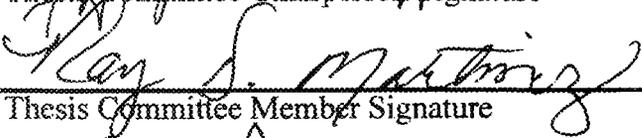
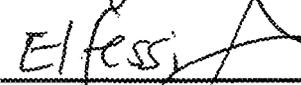
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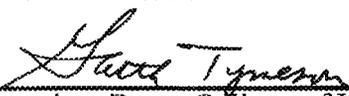
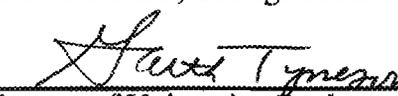
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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to thank the many people who helped me with this thesis. God has continually blessed my family and me by surrounding us with quality people.

I first would like to thank my committee members: Dr. Jeff Steffen (thesis chair), Dr. Ray Martinez, and Dr. Abdulaziz Elfessi. Thank you all for your time, advice, and extra work while helping me to complete this project. It was a pleasure working with you, and I value the friendships that have evolved.

I would also like to thank the coaches and athletes who were involved in this study. Without you, the study could not have been completed.

A big thank you goes to my parents, Bob and Blondi Lindauer. Without the hard work and sacrifices you made for me while growing up, I wouldn't be where I am today. I love you both!

My last thank you goes to my wife Pam and kids Reed, Paige, and Kate. Thanks kids for being so understanding when daddy had to be gone. Thank you Pam for helping with the proof reading and providing support when times got tough. More importantly though, thanks for having faith and helping me follow this dream. I love you!

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CHAPTER I  
INTRODUCTION

Background

“Leadership is the attempt to influence the behavior of an individual or group” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 3). Why is leadership so important? According to Fiedler and Chemers (1974), “effective leaders impact their organizations, and organizations without effective leadership are in trouble” (p. 1). Throughout history the need for great leaders and the results of their leadership have shaped society. Almost every facet of society has demanded excellence, constantly striving to achieve more. Effective leadership is needed to generate profit, improve skills, and increase productivity in business, education, industry, and sport. Effective leaders have been crucial as they met the needs of their followers and propelled them to greater success.

Leadership research has existed for many years (Chelladurai, 1990; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Fieldler & Chemers, 1974; Fleishman, 1957; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; House, 1971; Yukl, 1971). Leadership research focused on studying specific leader traits (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). After the second World War, the premise that leaders could be developed gained momentum.

The path goal theory of leadership, the behavioral theory of leadership, the contingency model of leadership, and the multidimensional model of leadership were developed to examine leader behaviors (Chelladurai, 1990; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974;

House, 1971; Yukl, 1971). Current leadership research has evolved from these theories of leader behavior.

In order to measure leader behavior, several researchers (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980; Fleishman, 1957; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Zhang, 1993) have attempted to develop instruments to measure this behavior. These instruments have been used to examine leader behaviors in the military, industry, education, organizations, and athletics. One of the first of such instruments was developed by a group of researchers at The Ohio State University. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed by Hemphill and Coons (1957), and further refined by Halpin and Winer (1957) and Fleishman (1957). The instrument was developed to measure general leadership behavior.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) wanted to determine if leader behaviors could be applied to athletics. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) suspected that the different natures of sport and industry may require the utilization of different factors to measure leadership behavior. The author's research showed leader behaviors in sport differed from business and industry and would benefit from different factors to measure leadership behavior.

In 1978 and 1980, Chelladurai and Saleh developed the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) to measure leader behaviors specifically in athletics. Five factors of the 40 items were identified to measure coach leadership behaviors. The five factors were: Training and Instruction Behavior (TI), Autocratic Behavior (AB), Democratic Behavior (DB), Social Support Behavior (SS), and Positive Feedback Behavior (PF).

More recently, Zhang (1993) revised the LSS to improve the validity and reliability of the instrument. The modification and revision of the leadership scale for sport (MRLSS) retained 23 questions from the LSS and added 39 new items for a total of 62 questions (See Appendix A). Zhang also added Situational Consideration Behavior (SC) as another factor to examine coaching leadership behavior.

There has been much research done on comparing male and female athlete preferences on coaching leadership behaviors. Few researchers have attempted to examine preferences of individual and team sport participants of coach leadership behaviors. This study attempted to examine the differences of individual and team sport athlete preferences and male and female athlete preferences of coach leadership behaviors as measured by the MRLSS.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences of preferred coaching behaviors of male and female college athletes in selected individual and team sports at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. The Modification and Revision of the Leadership Scale for Sports (MRLSS) was used to measure player preferences of coaching behaviors (Zhang, 1993).

#### Statement of the Problem

Coaching leadership behaviors preferred by athletes are generally believed to lead to increased athlete satisfaction and performance (House, 1971). A satisfied athlete is generally known to lead to increased performance (Reimer & Chelladurai, 1998). Many coaches lead their teams in a style that they think is best. It is important for coaches to

understand players needs and wants to improve athlete satisfaction (Reimer & Chelladurai, 1998). Most coaches fail to consider the needs and wants of their players. Coaching behaviors that are preferred by athletes may lead to increased satisfaction and performance of the players. Coaches that understand their own athletes' coaching preferences may be more effective at motivating their athletes. This study added to the body of evidence on preferred coaching leadership behaviors. Specifically, male and female and individual and team sport participants were compared to determine if there were any differences in preferred coaching leadership behaviors of these athletes.

#### Hypothesis

The hypothesis of this study was that there were significant differences in preferences of male and female college athletes in selected individual and team sports for coaching leadership behaviors as measured on the MRLSS.

#### Assumptions

1. The Modified Revised Leadership Scale for Sport was a valid and reliable instrument.
2. Subjects answered the questionnaire honestly.
3. Subjects had enough knowledge to understand the items on the questionnaire.
4. The Likert scale represented interval data.

#### Delimitations

1. Subjects were male members of the basketball, baseball, wrestling, and track and field teams, and female members of the softball and track and field teams at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse.
2. Subjects were team members in the winter/spring of 1999-2000.

3. The instrument used to collect the data was the MRLSS (Zhang, 1993).
4. Subjects were coached by individuals under contract at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse during the winter/spring 2000.

#### Limitations

1. Subjects who completed the MRLSS were volunteers and may not be representative of all athletes.
2. Subjects may have misinterpreted the items on the MRLSS, which may have skewed the data.

#### Definition of Terms

Autocratic Behavior (AB) - coaches that make decisions independently and stress personal authority (Chelladurai, 1990).

Democratic Behavior (DB) - coaches that allow athletes to participate in decisions pertaining to goals, methods, and strategies (Chelladurai, 1990).

Positive Feedback Behavior (PF) - coaches that recognize and reward good performance (Chelladurai, 1990).

Situational Consideration Behavior (SC) - coaches that consider situational factors before behaving (Zhang, 1993).

Social Support Behavior (SS) - coaches that provide a warm atmosphere and show concern for others (Chelladurai, 1990).

Training and Instruction Behavior (TI) - coaches that teach the skills and techniques of a sport and emphasize hard work and training (Chelladurai, 1990).

Individual Sports - an athletic team, where for the most part, members of the team compete individually.

Team Sports - an athletic team, where for the most part, members of the team compete together as a group.

Athlete Satisfaction - positive feelings of an athlete that results from structures, processes, and outcomes.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in coach leader behavior preferences for individual and team sport athletes. The MRLSS (Zhang, 1993) was used to measure athlete preferences for Autocratic Behavior (AB), Democratic Behavior (DB), Situational Consideration Behavior (SC), Positive Feedback Behavior (PF), Social Support Behavior (SS), and Training and Instruction (TI). This literature review focused on studies using the LSS and MRLSS, which researchers have used to examine coach leader behavior preferences in various situations (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980; Peng, 1997; Wang, 1996). This review included leadership theory, models of leadership, the development of leadership instruments, and preferred leader behaviors.

#### Leadership Theory and Models of Leadership

Leadership research has evolved over time. Specific traits of leaders were studied up until World War II. The trait approach suggested that there were certain characteristics of effective leadership, and leadership training would only be helpful to people with these traits (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

More recently, researchers suggested leadership was a process, varying with leaders, followers, and situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The authors developed the situational approach to leadership. This model examined the behavior of leaders and

group members in different situations. It was reported that it was possible to train people in adapting the styles of leader behavior to various situations. The situational model of leadership was based upon the amount of guidance a leader gives, the amount of support shown by the leader, and the maturity level of the followers. Hersey and Blanchard found that there was no best way to lead people, but the key to leadership was to recognize the maturity level of the group.

Other researchers have also tested theories of leader behavior. The path goal theory stated that group members' performance and satisfaction are influenced by a leader's behavior (House, 1971). House found that where tasks were varied and interdependent, a structured environment was preferred by group members. In 1971, Yukl developed the behavioral theory of leadership. According to Yukl, the behavioral theory of leadership found that the interaction of leader behavior, situational variables, and intermediate variables helped explain worker satisfaction and productivity.

Three years later, Fiedler and Chemers (1974) developed the contingency model of leadership. This study found that the performance of a group was dependent upon the motivational style of the leader and the amount of control the leader demonstrated. In 1990, Chelladurai reemphasized the multidimensional model of leadership to explain coach leader behavior. Chelladurai reported that the situation, the leader, and the members affected the three states of leader behavior (perceived, preferred, and actual).

#### Development of Leadership Instruments

Early research on leader behaviors focused on business and industry. Researchers at The Ohio State University developed an instrument to measure general leader

behavior. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed by Hemphill and Coons (1957) and refined by Halpin and Winer (1957) and Fleishman (1957).

#### The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

Hemphill and Coons (1957) used previous leadership research to develop 1,790 items. Ultimately, 150 items were retained and arranged in the questionnaire. These items were from eight dimensions of leader behavior. The LBDQ was administered to 359 subjects. Hemphill and Coons reported that the LBDQ was convenient to collect data, but the instrument lacked validity and reliability. Halpin and Winer (1957) administered the LBDQ to 300 Air Force crew members of B-52 bombers. Factor analysis of the eight dimensions resulted in the emergence of four factors (consideration, initiating, structure, production emphasis, and social awareness). Halpin and Winer reported that the factors of consideration and initiating structure were reliable. Fleishman (1957) further refined the LBDQ into a supervisory behavior description questionnaire. This 136 item instrument was administered to 100 foreman in the field of industry. Fleishman's (1957) results supported the findings by Halpin and Winer (1957), in that the consideration and initiating structure scales were deemed independent and reliable. Fleishman (1957) stated, "the low correlations between the scales and other psychometric and background measures, and the substantial correlation with certain leadership criteria, suggest that these scales may be useful additions in the fields of leadership research and assessment" (p. 118).

### The Leadership Scale for Sport

Previous studies had examined leader behaviors in business and industry. In 1978, Chelladurai and Saleh studied leadership to determine if the effectiveness of specific leader behaviors could be related to sport. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) revised and refined previous instruments to produce a 99 item questionnaire designed to be a more sport specific tool. The Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) compared gender, dependence (individual/team sport), and variability (closed/open) of a subjects favorite sport (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978). The LSS was administered to 160 (m = 80, f = 80) physical education students at Canadian universities. Factor analysis of the items identified five coaching behaviors. The five factors included training behavior, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, support behavior, and rewarding behavior. It was found that team sport athletes preferred more training behavior from their coach than individual sport athletes. Males preferred more autocratic behavior than females, whereas females preferred more democratic behavior than males. Males preferred more support behavior from their coach than females. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) concluded that a coach's behavior should focus on training, support, and rewarding. These results were promising, but the LSS failed to be valid and reliable.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) continued study of the LSS in a second stage to determine reliability and validity. The first stage of the study (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978) also indicated the need to include more training and instruction items. Items in TI were increased while items in the other factors were decreased. The LSS was narrowed to 40 items and administered to a different sample of 102 physical education

students ( $m = 45$ ,  $f = 57$ ) and to 223 male varsity athletes at Canadian universities. The students were given the preference version of the LSS, while the athletes were given the preference and perception versions. Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) found test-retest reliability, content validity, and internal consistency to be adequate, and factor structure was stable over the three samples. The five factors included Training and Instruction (TI), Democratic Behavior (DB), Autocratic Behavior (AB), Social Support Behavior (SS), and Positive Feedback Behavior (PF). The factors contained 13, 9, 5, 8, and 5 items respectively. Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) concluded that the LSS could be used to examine preferences and perceptions by athletes. Wang (1996) also used the LSS to identify coach leadership behavior preferences of male and female track and field athletes. A total of 90 subjects ( $m = 45$ ,  $f = 45$ ) took the preference version of the LSS. Wang reported that males preferred more AB than females. These results supported the findings by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978, 1980).

#### The MRLSS

Zhang (1993) modified and revised the three versions of the LSS to enhance validity and reliability. Zhang received input from coaches and added 240 new items to the original 40 on the LSS. The items were tested by three linguistic experts and 17 coaching leadership experts. The MRLSS was then reduced to 120 items. The three versions of the questionnaire were administered to athletes ( $n = 696$ ) and coaches ( $n = 206$ ). Factor analysis revealed six factors to include in the MRLSS. Situational Consideration Behavior (SC) was added to AB, DB, SS, PF, and TI. "A total of 62 items were retained and among them 23 items were from the original LSS"

(Zhang, 1993, p. 26). Zhang reported the MRLSS was valid and reliable with the exception of AB. Autocratic Behavior had poor internal consistency, and Zhang suggested caution for further studies in examining AB. In 1997, Peng attempted to identify coach leadership behavior preferences of male and female college basketball players. Peng administered the MRLSS to 184 (m = 88, f = 96) Division III basketball players. It was reported that females preferred more DB and SC than males (Peng, 1997).

#### Summary

Many studies have examined coach leadership behavior preferences and perceptions of athletes (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980; Fleishman, 1957; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Peng, 1997; Wang, 1996; Zhang, 1993). It was reported that gender and situational characteristics show preference and perception differences (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980; Peng, 1997; Wang, 1996; Zhang, 1993). Few researchers have attempted to examine preferences of individual and team sport athletes (Chelladurai & Saleh 1978; Terry & Howe 1984). Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) reported significant differences of TI when comparing team and individual sport athletes. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine if there were different preferences of coaching leadership behaviors of participants in individual and team sports.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

#### Introduction

The MRLSS was used to measure subject preferences on coaching leadership behaviors. The study compared individual and team sport member preferences for coaching leadership behaviors under the six subscales of the MRLSS.

#### Subject Selection

The participants in this study were male basketball, baseball, wrestling, and track and field athletes, and female softball and track and field athletes (N = 167) from the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse (UW-L). Each subject competed in the Wisconsin Intercollegiate Athletic Conference (WIAC) at the Division III level. Athletes competed in individual and team sports and were members of their respective teams in the winter/spring of 1999-2000. All subjects who completed the MRLSS were volunteers.

#### Measuring Instrument

The instrument used for the study was Peng's (1997) adaptation of the MRLSS (Zhang, 1993) (See Appendix B). The MRLSS was given to the subjects in the middle of their sport season. The subjects were instructed to pencil in responses on the UW-L general answer sheet.

The adapted MRLSS consisted of 62 questions which were divided into six subscales: Situational Consideration Behavior (SC), Positive Feedback Behavior (PF), Social Support Behavior (SS), Autocratic Behavior (AB), Democratic Behavior (DB),

and Training and Instruction (TI). Each subscale described a specific coaching behavior. The items on the questionnaire were arranged randomly. SC had 10 items, PF had 12 items, SS had 9 items, AB had 8 items, DB had 13 items, and TI had 10 items. The subjects indicated the degree of preference to each item by rating it on a 5 point Likert scale. The lower the score for each item, the higher the degree of preference for that category. The original MRLSS (Zhang, 1993) intended for subjects to circle the response on the 5 point Likert scale, with one being the highest degree of preference and five being the lowest. Peng (1997) adapted the MRLSS to allow computerized score sheets to assist with the analysis of data. The five response categories on the Likert scale were changed to read (A) Always (100%), (B) Often (75%), (C) Occasionally (50%), (D) Seldom (25%), and (E) Never (0%) (Peng, 1997). Those responses were inserted instead of (1) Always, (2) Often, (3) Occasionally, (4) Seldom, and (5) Never.

Score ranges were calculated for each subscale. The score ranges for SC, PF, SS, AB, DB, TI were: SC (10-50), PF (12-60), SS (9-45), AB (8-40), DB (13-65), and TI (10-50). The lowest score on each subscale indicated the highest degree of preference while the highest score on each subscale indicated the lowest degree of preference.

#### Procedures

This study was approved by the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRB). Following IRB approval, permission was obtained from the associate athletic director at UW-L to speak to individual coaches.

The men's basketball, men's baseball, women's softball, men's wrestling, and men's and women's track and field coaches were then contacted and presented with an explanation of the study. Permission was obtained from each coach for cooperation in the study. A specific date was set to administer the MRLSS.

Volunteers from the men's basketball ( $n = 14$ ), men's and women's track and field ( $n = 76$ ), men's baseball ( $n = 30$ ), women's softball ( $n = 21$ ), and men's wrestling ( $n = 26$ ) teams were administered the MRLSS in the middle of their seasons. All subjects filled out an informed consent form before answering any of the items on the questionnaire (see Appendix C). The instructions for the MRLSS were thoroughly explained and each subject was informed that the information gathered from the study would be anonymous. Each subject volunteered and could discontinue participation at any time.

#### Statistical Analysis

A 2 x 2 ANOVA was used as a statistical treatment to compare dependence and gender differences of the groups using the following six measurements: AB, DB, SC, PF, SS, and TI. A one way ANOVA was also used to determine differences between specific sports teams. Significant differences in ANOVA were then analyzed using Tukey's post hoc comparison to determine the location of the differences. Alpha was set at .05. The SPSS 9.0 statistical program was used to organize and analyze data.

CHAPTER IV  
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

A total of six athletic teams were surveyed in the middle of their sport seasons at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. Of the six, three were considered individual sports (n = 102) and three were considered team sports (n = 65). The individual sports surveyed were men's and women's track and field teams and the men's wrestling team. The team sports surveyed were men's basketball team, the men's baseball team, and the women's softball team.

Comparisons of individual and team sport athletes' (dependence), and male and female athletes' (gender) preferences for coaching leadership behaviors were made after the data were analyzed. The results of the data analyses are presented under the following headings: results, discussion, and implications.

Results

The descriptive statistics for each of the six leadership subscales and the various groups are provided in Table 1. A 2 x 2 ANOVA was used to test the null hypotheses for the six leadership dimensions. Each ANOVA included the examination of two main effects and an interaction effect. The two main effects, dependence and gender, and the interaction effect were analyzed for each of the six leadership dimensions.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations of the Preferences of Coaching Leadership Behaviors

Group	DB	AB	PF	SC	SS	TI
Individual Male n = 63	28.52 (7.02)*	22.88 (5.61)	21.14 (5.20)	16.01 (3.82)	19.76 (5.27)	16.68 (3.63)
Individual Female n = 39	27.35 (4.80)	26.61 (3.46)	19.82 (4.21)	15.43 (3.03)	22.94 (3.33)	17.02 (3.39)
Team Male n = 44	31.63 (7.34)	22.88 (3.94)	22.04 (5.73)	16.90 (4.09)	21.18 (4.79)	16.56 (3.97)
Team Female n = 21	30.42 (5.46)	27.00 (2.62)	23.23 (5.80)	15.66 (3.96)	21.19 (4.62)	16.85 (3.45)

\*Standard deviations.

The results of the ANOVA, displayed in Table 2, showed significant differences for dependence and/or gender in DB, AB, PF, and SS ( $p < .05$ ). The results showed significant differences between the preferences of individual and team sport athletes in DB ( $p < .01$ ) and PF ( $p < .05$ ). Significant differences were found between the preferences of male and female athletes in AB ( $p < .001$ ) and SS ( $p < .05$ ). Thus the null hypotheses for these effects were rejected. No significant differences were found in SC or TI.

Table 2. Analysis of Variance: Preferred Leadership Dimensions for Sport and Sex

Behavior	Source	df	MS	F
Democratic behavior DB	Dependence(D)	1	341.66	8.12**
	Sex(S)	1	50.32	1.19
	D x S	1	1.65E-02	.000
Autocratic Behavior AB	Dependence(D)	1	1.30	.06
	Sex(S)	1	549.50	27.85***
	D x S	1	1.34	.06
Positive Feedback PF	Dependence(D)	1	166.85	6.11*
	Sex(S)	1	.15	.00
	D x S	1	56.54	2.07
Situational Characteristics SC	Dependence(D)	1	11.29	.80
	Sex(S)	1	29.69	2.11
	D x S	1	3.92	.27
Social Support SS	Dependence(D)	1	1.02	.04
	Sex(S)	1	91.28	4.16*
	D x S	1	90.29	4.12*
Training Instruction TI	Dependence(D)	1	.72	.05
	Sex(S)	1	3.57	.26
	D x S	1	2.62E-02	.00

\* $p < .05$ .\*\* $p < .01$ .\*\*\* $p < .001$ .

The first 2 x 2 ANOVA analyzed dependence, gender, and the interaction effect for 'Democratic Behavior.' There was a significant mean difference in dependence ( $p < .01$ ). Individual sport athletes ( $M = 28.07$ ) preferred a greater degree of democratic behavior than team sport athletes ( $M = 31.24$ ). These findings indicate that individual sport athletes prefer their coach to allow them to participate in decisions pertaining to

goals, methods, and strategies more than team sport athletes (Chelladurai, 1990). There were no significant differences found between gender or interaction effect for DB.

The second 2 x 2 ANOVA analyzed dependence, gender, and the interaction effect for 'Autocratic Behavior.' There was a significant mean difference between genders ( $p < .001$ ). Male athletes ( $M = 22.88$ ) preferred a greater degree of autocratic behavior than female athletes ( $M = 26.75$ ). These findings indicate that male athletes prefer their coach to make decisions independently and stress personal authority more than female athletes (Chelladurai, 1990). Significant differences were not found in dependence or the interaction effect for AB.

The third 2 x 2 ANOVA analyzed dependence, gender, and the interaction effect for 'Positive Feedback.' There was a significant mean difference in dependence ( $p < .05$ ). Individual sport athletes ( $M = 20.63$ ) preferred a greater degree of preference for the coach to emphasize positive feedback more than team sport athletes ( $M = 22.43$ ). These findings indicate that individual sport athletes prefer their coach to recognize and reward good performance more than team sport athletes (Chelladurai, 1990). Significant differences were not found between the genders or interaction effect for PF.

The fourth 2 x 2 ANOVA analyzed dependence, gender, and the interaction effect for 'Situational Characteristics.' Zhang (1993) reported that SC was coaches considering situational factors before behaving. There were no significant differences found for dependence, gender, or the interaction effect for SC. This meant that individual and team sport athletes and male and female athletes were similar in their feelings about SC.

The fifth 2 x 2 ANOVA analyzed dependence, gender, and the interaction effect for 'Social Support.' There was a significant mean difference between genders ( $p < .05$ ) and for the interaction effect ( $p < .05$ ) for SS. Male athletes ( $M = 20.34$ ) preferred a greater degree of social support than female athletes ( $M = 22.33$ ). These findings indicate that compared to female athletes, male athletes indicate a stronger preference for their coach to provide a warm atmosphere and show concern for others. These findings also indicate there was a significant interaction between dependence and gender. Further analysis indicated that males in individual sports ( $M = 19.76$ ) preferred a greater degree of social support than females in individual sports ( $M = 22.94$ ). Male athletes ( $M = 21.18$ ) and female athletes ( $M = 21.19$ ) in team sports were similar in SS.

The last 2 x 2 ANOVA analyzed dependence, gender, and the interaction effect for 'Training and Instruction.' Chelladurai (1990) reported that TI was when coaches taught the skills and techniques of a sport and emphasized hard work and training. There were no significant differences found for dependence, gender, or the interaction effect for TI. This meant that individual and team sport athletes and male and female athletes were similar in their feelings about TI.

A one way ANOVA was also utilized to compare the various teams of this study for coaching leadership behaviors. The results of the one way ANOVA, displayed in Table 3, showed significant differences in DB, AB, PF, SC, and SS ( $p < .05$ ). No significant differences were found in TI. Further analysis using the Tukey post hoc comparison showed the specific differences between teams.

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations of the Preferences of Coaching Leadership Behaviors for each Sport

Group	DB	AB	PF	SC	SS	TI
Men's Baseball n = 30	31.43 (7.02)*	23.66 (3.18)	22.56 (5.82)	17.13 (4.26)	22.30 (4.81)	16.80 (4.46)
Men's Basketball n = 14	32.07 (8.25)	21.21 (4.94)	20.92 (5.58)	16.42 (3.81)	18.78 (3.92)	16.07 (2.73)
Women's Softball n = 21	30.42 (5.46)	27.00 (2.62)	23.23 (5.80)	15.66 (3.96)	21.19 (4.62)	16.85 (3.45)
Men's & Women's Track & Field n = 76	27.22 (5.80)	25.07 (5.10)	19.90 (4.72)	15.07 (3.50)	21.63 (5.12)	16.52 (3.61)
Men's Wrestling n = 26	30.57 (7.00)	22.07 (4.94)	22.76 (4.76)	17.88 (2.74)	19.07 (3.45)	17.65 (3.19)

\*Standard deviations.

Tukey's post hoc test showed significant differences between baseball players and track and field athletes ( $p < .05$ ) in DB. Track and field athletes ( $M = 27.22$ ) expressed a greater preference of democratic behavior than baseball players ( $M = 31.43$ ). These results indicate that track and field athletes prefer their coach to allow them to participate in decisions pertaining to goals, methods, and strategies more than baseball players.

Tukey's post hoc test revealed many differences in AB ( $p < .05$ ). Basketball players ( $M = 21.21$ ) expressed a greater degree of preference of autocratic behavior than track and field athletes ( $M = 25.07$ ) and softball players ( $M = 27.00$ ). Wrestlers ( $M = 22.07$ ) expressed a greater degree of preference of autocratic behavior compared to softball players ( $M = 27.00$ ) and track and field athletes ( $M = 25.07$ ).

Tukey's post hoc test also found significant differences in SC ( $p < .05$ ). Track and field athletes ( $M = 15.07$ ) expressed a greater degree of preference for SC compared to wrestlers ( $M = 17.88$ ). These results indicate that track and field athletes prefer their coach to consider situational characteristics such as, gender, environment, competition levels, individual differences, and the coach's ability to select the right player for the right position more than wrestlers (Zhang, 1993).

### Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine differences between the preferences of individual and team sport athletes and male and female athletes for specific coach leadership behaviors measured by the MRLSS. A  $2 \times 2$  ANOVA analyzed differences between dependence, gender, and the interaction effect for the six leadership dimensions. Significant differences were found in DB, AB, PF, and SS ( $p < .05$ ). A one way ANOVA was used to examine the various teams of this study for coaching leadership behaviors. Significant differences were found in DB, AB, PF, SC, and SS ( $p < .05$ ). Post hoc analysis showed the specific differences between teams.

The results in the democratic behavior subscale showed that male and female individual sport athletes preferred a greater degree of DB compared to team sport

athletes. Specifically, track and field athletes preferred more DB than other sports in the study. According to Chelladurai (1990), coaches who behave democratically allow athletes to participate in decisions pertaining to goals, methods, and strategies. It may be that track and field athletes preferred greater DB than other surveyed sports because the sport allows individuals to compete in different events within a contest. Coaches in this sport may want to incorporate strategies such as getting frequent input from the athletes and using their suggestions in making decisions concerning the individual athlete and the team.

It is not surprising that individual sport athletes desire more involvement than team sport athletes in decisions pertaining to goals, methods, and strategies. Since the athletes' success or failure depends mostly on themselves, they may feel a need to be involved in the training process, and they seem to prefer coaches who let them express their ideas. These findings lend support to Terry and Howe (1984) who also reported that independent sport athletes preferred a greater degree of democratic behavior.

This study did not support the significant differences between genders in DB found by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978). Chelladurai and Saleh used the LSS and found that female physical education students preferred their coaches/teachers to show a greater degree of democratic behavior than the male physical education students. Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) examined the relationship of leader behaviors, coach attributes, and institutional variables to team performance and athlete satisfaction. The authors found that, "a democratic decision making style was identified as the leader behavior that contributed most to the relationship with individual athlete satisfaction." (p. 344)

One important pattern emerged from both the findings of this study and the literature reviewed. Male athletes expressed their preference for both autocratic and social support behaviors. This pattern was found in this study as well as Peng's (1997) and Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) studies. Peng (1997) used the MRLSS with six subscales, while Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) used the LSS with five subscales.

The results in the autocratic behavior subscale showed that male athletes prefer a greater degree of AB compared to female athletes. Male basketball players and wrestlers showed the greatest preference of AB of the teams surveyed. These athletes may have more confidence in autocratic coaches. It could be that these athletes preferred greater degrees of AB than other surveyed sports because it affects their self-confidence and self-esteem. The wrestlers' preferences for AB seem contradictory of earlier findings in which individual sport athletes preferred more DB than team sport athletes. Further research of wrestlers' preferences of AB and DB may help to clarify this discrepancy. According to Chelladurai (1990), coaches who make decisions independently and stress personal authority show high degrees of AB. Coaches of some male sports may want to consider leading with authority and being more decisive.

These findings support Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) and Wang (1996) who also found that males preferred a greater degree of AB than females. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) used the LSS and found that male physical education students expressed a greater preference for the teacher/coach to be more autocratic than female physical education students. Wang (1996) also used the LSS and found that male track and field athletes expressed a greater preference for the teacher/coach to be more autocratic than female

track and field athletes. Zhang (1993), however, cautioned that due to poor internal consistency, further studies are needed to examine AB.

The results in the social support subscale showed that male athletes preferred a greater degree of SS compared to female athletes. Further examination showed that males in individual sports preferred more SS than females in individual sports. However, males and females in team sports demonstrated similar preferences of SS. Female athletes in team sports may be attracted to participate in them due to their social needs. Male basketball players showed the greatest preference of SS of the teams surveyed. This may be due to individual personality characteristics and the attraction of these athletes to this sport. According to Chelladurai (1990), coaches who provide high levels of SS provide a warm atmosphere and show concern for others. Coaches of these sports may want to consider using a leadership style in which they remain sensitive to the needs of their athletes, help athletes with their personal problems, and encourage athletes to confide in them.

The preferences of male athletes to have their coach be highly autocratic and show high social support behavior seems contradictory. Male athletes desire their coach to make decisions independently and stress personal authority, yet they prefer their coach to provide a warm atmosphere and show concern for others. Male athletes seem to want their coach to organize social outings to build team unity but would like the coach to operate independently in the coaching role. This may indicate that male athletes want coaches to be able to handle two roles effectively.

The results in the positive feedback subscale showed that individual sport athletes preferred more PF than team sport athletes. Males in individual and team sports had similar preferences of PF, but females in individual sport preferred a greater degree of PF than females in team sports. Track and field athletes showed the greatest preference of PF of the teams surveyed. This may be due to the multiple event participation and individualized training program for each athlete. According to Chelladurai (1990), coaches who display positive feedback behavior recognize and reward good performance. Coaches may want to tell an athlete when they do a particularly good job, reward an athlete for effort and performance, and encourage an athlete even though they make mistakes in performance.

It is interesting to note that individual sport athletes preferred a greater degree of positive feedback compared to team sport athletes. These athletes want to be involved in the decision making process as well as be recognized and rewarded for good performance. The personal relationship between coach and athlete in individual sports seems to require positive and open interaction.

The results in the situational consideration subscale showed that males and females in individual and team sports preferred high degrees of SC. Track and field athletes showed the greatest preference of SC of the teams surveyed. Again, this may be due to the athletes' participation in various events in a contest. According to Zhang (1993), situational consideration behavior is when coaches consider situational factors such as safety, ability levels, and training procedures before behaving. Coaches may

want to consider things such as instituting proper goal setting procedures, adapting their coaching style to suit different situations, and coaching to the level of the athletes.

The results of the training and instruction subscale showed that male and female athletes in individual and team sports had similar preferences of TI. All sports teams surveyed were also similar in their preferences of TI. Coaches may want to consider methods such as using objective measurements for evaluation, using a variety of drills for practice, and paying special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.

#### Implications

This study used the MRLSS to examine the situational characteristics of dependence and gender on the multidimensional model of leadership. The results indicated that gender and dependence should be considered as situational characteristics, and these may influence the preferences of specific coaching behaviors by athletes.

The differences found between gender and sport in this study supported the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1990). The multidimensional model of leadership explained that situational characteristics like gender and dependence affect the preferences of coach leadership behavior. According to the multidimensional model of leadership, athlete preferences for specific coaching behaviors may increase the satisfaction and performance of athletes.

This study also supported the path-goal theory. The path-goal theory stated that effective leader behavior varied according to characteristics of the task (House, 1971). In this study, team sport athletes preferred a more structured environment because of the interdependent and varied tasks. Prospective and current coaches may benefit from this

study by realizing some athlete preferences of various sports in order to satisfy and improve performance of their athletes.

Prospective and current coaches may want to align their coaching behavior with the dependence and gender characteristics of their team. Current coaches may want to compare their own behavior with the findings of dependence and gender and adjust it accordingly to the group that they coach. Prospective coaches may want to match their own coaching style with the dependence and/or gender of a team. Inexperienced coaches usually must rely on their own playing or volunteer experiences when coaching athletes. Many inexperienced coaches struggle because of the lack of structured hands-on experiences dealing with athletes. Knowledge of dependence and gender preferences may help coaches satisfy and improve the performance of their athletes. According to Reimer and Chelladurai (1998), athlete satisfaction comes from outcomes (winning) and processes that result in the outcomes. Therefore, if coaches consider and adapt their own behavior to the dependence and gender of their team, it may improve athlete satisfaction and performance for their sport.

Although this study indicates trends in the preferences of specific coaching leadership behaviors, it would be naïve to think that all athletes of a particular gender or sport prefer those behaviors. Often, individual preferences differ from team preferences. The difficult aspect of coaching is not only being able to satisfy the team as a group, but also being able to satisfy individuals within the team.

CHAPTER V  
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences of preferred coaching behaviors of male and female college athletes in selected individual and team sports. The volunteer subjects' preferences were measured on the MRLSS. These subjects included members of the women's softball team, women's track and field team, men's baseball team, men's basketball team, men's wrestling team, and the men's track and field team (N = 167).

A 2 x 2 ANOVA examined the six subscales and indicated differences between individual and team sport athletes, and male and female athletes for some of the preferences of coaching behaviors. Significant differences were found in DB, AB, PF, and SS ( $p < .05$ ). A one way ANOVA also found differences between the different sports. Tukey's post hoc comparison demonstrated differences between specific sports teams for DB, AB, PF, SC, and SS ( $p < .05$ ).

Conclusions

Based on the results of this study, the following conclusions were reached:

1. There were significant mean differences between individual and team sport athlete preferences in DB. Individual sport athletes preferred a greater degree of democratic behavior than team sport athletes.

2. There were significant mean differences between male and female athlete preferences in AB. Male athletes preferred a greater degree of autocratic behavior than female athletes.
3. There were significant mean differences between individual and team sport athlete preferences in PF. Individual sport athletes preferred a greater degree of positive feedback than team sport athletes.
4. There were significant mean differences between male and female athlete preferences in SS. Male athletes preferred a greater degree of social support than female athletes.
5. There were no significant differences between the preferences of male and female or individual and team sport athletes for SC or TI.
6. The dependence and gender composition of a team may be considered a situational factor that affects the preferences of specific coaching behaviors by subjects.
7. There were significant mean differences between sports teams in DB. Track and field athletes expressed a greater preference of DB than baseball players.
8. There were significant mean differences between sports teams in AB. Basketball players expressed a greater degree of preference of AB than track and field and softball athletes. Wrestlers expressed a greater degree of preference of AB than softball players and track and field athletes.
9. There were significant mean differences between sports teams in SC. Track and field athletes expressed a greater degree of preference than wrestlers.

10. There were significant mean differences between sports teams in PF. Track and field athletes expressed a greater degree of preference than baseball players, softball players, and wrestlers.
11. There were significant mean differences between sports teams in SS. Basketball players preferred a greater degree of preference than baseball players and track and field athletes. Wrestlers preferred a greater degree of preference than baseball players and track and field athletes.

#### Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, it is recommended that future studies:

1. Examine athlete experience of different coaches and athlete preferences to determine if there is a correlation between athlete experience and coaching behavior preferences.
2. Compare preferred coaching behaviors with perceived coaching behaviors and coach self-evaluations on the MRLSS.
3. Examine athlete preferences in comparison to athlete satisfaction and performance.
4. Apply the MRLSS to different sports and competition levels to expand the research on coaching leadership behaviors.
5. Examine if there is a correlation between AB and SS by using different samples of athletes from NCAA Division I, NCAA Division II, and NCAA Division III levels.

6. Apply the MRLSS to different sports to expand the research on different team preferences of coaching leadership behaviors.
7. Examine athlete preferences of coaching leadership behaviors in comparison to athletes' level of self-confidence and self-esteem.
8. Examine individual sport athlete preferences of coaching behavior in DB and AB. Specifically, examine wrestlers' preferences of coaching behavior in DB and AB compared to other individual sports.

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APPENDIX A  
THE ORIGINAL MRLSS

**The Revised Leadership Scale for Sport**  
(Athlete Preference Version)

Directions:

Each of the following statements describe a specific behavior that a coach may exhibit. For each statement there are five alternatives, as follows: 5 means 'always' (100% of the time); 4 means 'often' (75% of the time); 3 means 'occasionally' (50% of the time); 2 means 'seldom' (25% of the time); and 1 means 'never' (0% of the time).

Please indicate your preference by circling the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of a response. Please note that this is **not an evaluation** of your present coach or any other coach. It is your **own personal preference** that is required. There are no right or wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of the study.

Example: I prefer my coach to like each athlete on the team.    1    2    3    4    5

**I prefer my coach to:**

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. reward the athletes at the end of a season.                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. set up specific safety measures.                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. pat an athlete after a good performance.                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. know the most important equipment needed for a specific training. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. like an athlete no matter how the athlete plays.                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. involve everybody on the team in formulating policies             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. remain sensitive to the needs of the athletes.                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. set goals that are compatible with the athletes' abilities.       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. use objective measurements for evaluation.                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. help athletes with their personal problems.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

11. coach to the level of the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. present ideas forcefully.	1	2	3	4	5
13. put the suggestions made by the group into operation.	1	2	3	4	5
14. supervise athletes' drills closely.	1	2	3	4	5
15. tell an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job.	1	2	3	4	5
16. let the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
17. encourage an athlete when the athlete makes mistakes in performance.	1	2	3	4	5
18. clarify goals and the paths to reach the goals for the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
19. compliment an athlete for good performance in front of others.	1	2	3	4	5
20. express interest for an athlete's hobbies.	1	2	3	4	5
21. give the athletes freedom to determine the details of conducting a drill.	1	2	3	4	5
22. visit with the parents/guardians of the athletes when they come to a competition.	1	2	3	4	5
23. speak in a manner which discourages questions.	1	2	3	4	5
24. use a variety of drills for a practice.	1	2	3	4	5
25. possess good knowledge of the sport.	1	2	3	4	5
26. recognize individual contributions to the success of each game.	1	2	3	4	5
27. refuse to compromise on a point.	1	2	3	4	5
28. let the athletes share in the decision making.	1	2	3	4	5

29. pay special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
30. give the credit when it is due.	1	2	3	4	5
31. see the merits of athletes' ideas when differ from the coach's.	1	2	3	4	5
32. adapt coaching style to suit the situation.	1	2	3	4	5
33. make most of the decisions for the team.	1	2	3	4	5
34. ask for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.	1	2	3	4	5
35. let the athletes set their own goals.	1	2	3	4	5
36. perform personal favors for the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
37. ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.	1	2	3	4	5
38. congratulate an athlete after a good play.	1	2	3	4	5
39. prescribe the methods to be followed.	1	2	3	4	5
40. assign tasks according to each individual's ability and needs.	1	2	3	4	5
41. stay ready for the unexpected developments.	1	2	3	4	5
42. keep aloof from the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
43. plan for the team relatively independent of the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
44. show "O.K." or "Thumbs Up" gesture to the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
45. explain to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport.	1	2	3	4	5
46. make complex things easier to understand and learn.	1	2	3	4	5
47. encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	1	2	3	4	5

48. get input from the athletes at daily team meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
49. express any affection felt for the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
50. fail to explain his/her actions	1	2	3	4	5
51. express appreciation when an athlete performs well.	1	2	3	4	5
52. clarify training priorities and work on them.	1	2	3	4	5
53. get group approval on important matters before going ahead.	1	2	3	4	5
54. encourage the athlete to confide in the coach.	1	2	3	4	5
55. reward an athlete as long as the athlete tries hard.	1	2	3	4	5
56. put the appropriate athletes in the lineup.	1	2	3	4	5
57. let the athletes decide on plays to be used in a game.	1	2	3	4	5
58. adjust the training to fit the athletes' intellectual and neuromuscular skill levels.	1	2	3	4	5
59. praise the athletes' good performance after losing a game.	1	2	3	4	5
60. decide on different training procedures depending on the athletes' condition and team maturity.	1	2	3	4	5
61. encourage close and informal relations with the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
62. stress mastery of greater skills.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

(PENG, 1997, ADAPTED FROM ZHANG, 1993)

**The Revised Leadership Scale for Sport\***  
(Athlete Preference Version)

Directions:

Each of the following statements describe a specific behavior that a coach may exhibit. For each statement there are five alternatives, as follows: 5 means 'always' (100% of the time); 4 means 'often' (75% of the time); 3 means 'occasionally' (50% of the time); 2 means 'seldom' (25% of the time); and 1 means 'never' (0% of the time).

Please indicate your preference by filling in the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of a response. Please note that this is **not an evaluation** of your present coach or any other coach. It is your **own personal preference** that is required. There are no right or wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of the study.

Example: I prefer my coach to like each athlete on the team.

Always	oft.	Occa.	Seldom	never
(100%)	(75%)	(50%)	(25%)	(0%)
A	B	C	D	E

\*Adapted from Zhang (1993)

**I prefer my coach to:**

	always (100%)	oft. (75%)	occa. (50%)	seldom (25%)	never (0%)
	A	B	C	D	E
1. reward the athletes at the end of a season.	A	B	C	D	E
2. set up specific safety measures.	A	B	C	D	E
3. pat an athlete after a good performance.	A	B	C	D	E
4. know the most important equipment needed for a specific training.	A	B	C	D	E
5. like an athlete no matter how the athlete plays.	A	B	C	D	E
6. involve everybody on the team in formulating policies	A	B	C	D	E
7. remain sensitive to the needs of the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E
8. set goals that are compatible with the athletes' abilities.	A	B	C	D	E
9. use objective measurements for evaluation.	A	B	C	D	E
10. help athletes with their personal problems.	A	B	C	D	E
11. coach to the level of the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E
12. present ideas forcefully.	A	B	C	D	E
13. put the suggestions made by the group into operation.	A	B	C	D	E
14. supervise athletes' drills closely.	A	B	C	D	E
15. tell an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job.	A	B	C	D	E
16. let the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	A	B	C	D	E
17. encourage an athlete when the athlete makes mistakes in performance.	A	B	C	D	E
18. clarify goals and the paths to reach the goals for the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E

**I prefer my coach to:**

	always (100%)	often (75%)	occa. (50%)	Seldom (25%)	never (0%)
19. compliment an athlete for good performance in front of others.	A	B	C	D	E
20. express interest for an athlete's hobbies.	A	B	C	D	E
21. give the athletes freedom to determine the details of conducting a drill.	A	B	C	D	E
22. visit with the parents/guardians of the athletes when they come to a competition.	A	B	C	D	E
23. speak in a manner which discourages questions.	A	B	C	D	E
24. use a variety of drills for a practice.	A	B	C	D	E
25. possess good knowledge of the sport.	A	B	C	D	E
26. recognize individual contributions to the success of each game.	A	B	C	D	E
27. refuse to compromise on a point.	A	B	C	D	E
28. let the athletes share in the decision making.	A	B	C	D	E
29. pay special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.	A	B	C	D	E
30. give the credit when it is due.	A	B	C	D	E
31. see the merits of athletes' ideas when differ from the coach's.	A	B	C	D	E
32. adapt coaching style to suit the situation.	A	B	C	D	E
33. make most of the decisions for the team.	A	B	C	D	E
34. ask for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.	A	B	C	D	E
35. let the athletes set their own goals.	A	B	C	D	E
36. perform personal favors for the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E

**I prefer my coach to:**

	always (100%)	often (75%)	occa. (50%)	Seldom (25%)	never (0%)
37. ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.	A	B	C	D	E
38. congratulate an athlete after a good play.	A	B	C	D	E
39. prescribe the methods to be followed.	A	B	C	D	E
40. assign tasks according to each individual's ability and needs.	A	B	C	D	E
41. stay ready for the unexpected developments.	A	B	C	D	E
42. keep aloof from the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E
43. plan for the team relatively independent of the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E
44. show "O.K." or "Thumbs Up" gesture to the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E
45. explain to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport.	A	B	C	D	E
46. make complex things easier to understand and learn.	A	B	C	D	E
47. encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	A	B	C	D	E
48. get input from the athletes at daily team meetings.	A	B	C	D	E
49. express any affection felt for the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E
50. fail to explain his/her actions	A	B	C	D	E
51. express appreciation when an athlete performs well.	A	B	C	D	E
52. clarify training priorities and work on them.	A	B	C	D	E
53. get group approval on important matters before going ahead.	A	B	C	D	E
54. encourage the athlete to confide in the coach.	A	B	C	D	E
55. reward an athlete as long as the athlete tries hard.	A	B	C	D	E

**I prefer my coach to:**

	always (100%)	often (75%)	occa. (50%)	Seldom (25%)	never (0%)
56. put the appropriate athletes in the lineup.	A	B	C	D	E
57. let the athletes decide on plays to be used in a game.	A	B	C	D	E
58. adjust the training to fit the athletes' intellectual and neuromuscular skill levels.	A	B	C	D	E
59. praise the athletes' good performance after losing a game.	A	B	C	D	E
60. decide on different training procedures depending on the athletes' condition and team maturity.	A	B	C	D	E
61. encourage close and informal relations with the athletes.	A	B	C	D	E
62. stress mastery of greater skills.	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX C  
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

### Informed Consent Form

Project Title: A COMPARISON OF PREFERRED COACHING LEADERSHIP  
BEHAVIORS OF COLLEGE ATHLETES IN INDIVIDUAL AND  
TEAM SPORTS

I give my informed consent to participate in this study of athlete preferences of coaching leadership behaviors. I consent to presentation and publication or other dissemination of study results so long as the information is anonymous and disguised so that no personal identification can be made. I have been informed that although a record will be kept of my having participated in the study, all data from my participation will be identified by number only.

- (1) I have been informed that my participation in this study will involve filling out a survey on preferences of coaching leadership behaviors. The survey will take approximately 15-30 minutes of my time.
- (2) I have been informed that the general purpose of this study is to gather information about player preferences of leadership behaviors of coaches.
- (3) I have been informed that there are no known expected discomforts or risks involved in my participation in this study.
- (4) I have been informed that there are not "disguised" procedures in this study. All procedures can be taken at face value.
- (5) I have been informed that the investigator will answer questions regarding the procedure of this study.
- (6) The information obtained from this research will contribute to the body of evidence on coaching effectiveness. The results may benefit the participants by identifying specific preferred coaching leadership behaviors. These preferences then could provide information for their coaches to consider the needs of their athletes. This may lead to more satisfaction and enhanced performance for the participants if the coach adopts the preferred behaviors.
- (7) I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without penalty.

Investigator or Researcher	Date	Participant	Date
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